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ABSTRACT

Between the years of 1978 and 1987, the Dutch National Institute for Curriculum Development (SLO) developed a core curriculum of objectives and content for a new social and political education curriculum. These new programs were to take effect in the secondary modern schools and lower vocational schools for students age 14-16. The empowering legislation for these changes was the Secondary Education Act of 1963, which took effect in 1968. This legislation resulted in: (1) a reorganization of school types; (2) innovation in educational content; and (3) specifications of teachers' competencies. This reorganization and the pre-1968 context are discussed under the heading of "Background: Changes in the School System." The content and materials of the social and political studies were not immediately specified by the government and were developed through a program of ever widening cycles of applications and through consultations among teachers, subject specialists, and managerial specialists. This led to the development of the thematic fields of: (1) education; (2) home, house, and environment; (3) work and leisure; (4) technology and society; (5) state and society; and (6) international relations. A manual called "Planning Social and Political Studies" was developed which consisted of four parts dealing respectively with: (1) the content of social and political education; (2) planning for these studies in the school; (3) educational equipment and procedures; and (4) content sources to consult. Examples of 14 theme publications, 17 auxiliary project publications, and 8 theme related audio-visual aids are given. (PPB)

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Adriaan Kamer

Curriculum development for social and political education in dutch lower-, general-, and vocational schools

The innovation of a comparatively new subject in a newly organized schools system

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Instituut voor Leerplanontwikkeling

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1988

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Foreword

This booklet contains a description in outlines of one of the many projects of the Dutch National Institute for Curriculum Development SLO. This project had as its aim the development of a new curriculum for social and political education in the Dutch schools for MAVO (secondary modern schools) and LBO (lower vocational schools) for students of the ages 14-16. The subject was introduced in the Secondary Education Act of 1963, but the realization in schools appeared to be very difficult. From 1978 to 1987 SLO invested manpower and money in the development of a core curriculum of objectives and content. And in the development of exemplary units for series of lessons and of other materials.
The description of this development intends to serve two goals:

a. To inform our many foreign guests about the real daily work of SLO. We have of course some general information about SLO (mission, facts and figures, position within the Dutch educational system, etc). But this booklet tries to tell more about strategies, procedures, scientific problems, results...of the developmental work itself. Mainly by a case-description, but in some places more general reflections are to be found also.

b. To inform experts in the domain of social sciences about one rather important development in the Netherlands. We tried to do this in such a way, that experts can make an appraisal of this project and decide whether or not further contacts would be fruitful.

In the eighties the work of "production-institutes" like SLO is under pressure of time, need of visible impact, budget cuts. This climate has as a consequence that it is not easy to find the possibilities to write a booklet like this; for which time, expert-knowledge, interest and patience are necessary. I am happy that it could be arranged that my colleague Adriaan Kaaks did this job and I have seen that he did it with enthusiasm. And in my opinion he did it very well.

Drs. Johan C. van Bruggen,
deputy director development SLO.

1. Introduction

Social and political education is a rather new subject in the Dutch educational system. The present school-system is also fairly young. Both were introduced when the new Secondary Education act of 1963 came into effect. That happened in 1968, consequently 1968 is a year very often referred to in descriptions of Dutch secondary education. By this act the existing types of schools were transformed into new ones - partly. An entirely new type of school came into being and curricular content became subject of re-consideration. The teachers remained unchanged. For a couple of years they had to function in schools where the new system was gradually introduced. The majority thought of it as a mere shift in examination requirements to be met at the end. That seemed a matter of levels to be specified, a problem still existing today. For the rest it would be a question of new routines to be formed. But things turned out to be not as easy as that. Social and political education, a new subject in the new organisation, may serve as an example: The teachers in lower secondary and in vocational schools were not familiar with this subject. They had not been trained to teach it. There was even a great lack of knowledge. So it was a teachers problem that was put before the S.L.O. when their association applied for support in 1979. What this association, calling itself N.V.L.M. formulated as its need was "an instrument to translate the overall curriculum described in the Education act of 1963 into content and organization of the subject in the school". More specifically this meant an apply to the S.L.O. to develop well formulated guidelines and examples of how formulations at the macro level could be worked out in lessons, lesson sequences and practical school curriculums. The way in which the S.L.O. dealt with this request, how it chose its strategy, and in what way educational content was approached, it was all strongly related to insights in the following topics:

1. What changes were brought about in secondary education by 1968.
   What were the aims of these changes.
   What were the immediate effects.
   What was more or less generally felt to be the ultimate effect in 1979.

2. With what purpose was social and political studies introduced.
   Why this subject was rather more indicated than defined.

3. What explains the lack of knowledge especially in teachers of lower secondary and vocational schools.

Some of these have to be explained in the next chapter before the project of Social and Political Studies itself can be dealt with. This is done with a view to the reader who is not familiar with the Dutch educational system.

Another point that requires attention is the fact that certain terms used in the description of education are hard to translate. They may have some equivalent in English, but then the bit of reality it refers to is not exactly the same. Occasionally this problem will be dealt with when the need arises. An exception has to be made for the term Social and Political Studies: It has been chosen to represent the Dutch "Maatschappijleer".
A literal translation of "Maatschappij-leer" would have to concentrate on two elements in this compound: 'maatschappij' and 'leer'.
'Maatschappij' is translated by 'society' in most dictionaries. In Dutch it has connotations with 'association' and 'company'. It is also semantically marked with connotations of morality, of what is socially desirable for instance.
'Leer' unites an even wider field; denoted by English science, faith, apprentice. It is related to the verb 'leren' which means both 'to learn' and 'to teach'.
Consequently maatschappijleer may best be rendered in a circumscription: "What can be learned and taught about society". A wide notion, capable of various interpretations as the reader will notice. Our translation will be 'Social and Political Studies' because that term refers to an educational practice in the English-speaking part of the world, comparable to the Dutch educational content.
This essay will explain why and how an SLO project group concerned themselves with defining this content. It will do that with a necessary minimum of detail . More information will be provided willingly by the project-staff. They can be contacted at the SLO, P.O. box 2041; 7500 CA Enschede, The Netherlands.

2. Backgrounds: changes in the schools system

The decision how to act on the request of the teachers' association for this particular field of education was not taken in an overnight way. A thorough discussion took place on various levels in the S.L.O. before any decisions were taken. That is not to surprise anyone who is somewhat familiar with the questions raised at the end of the introduction.
The first questions concern educational policy, the restructuring of Dutch secondary education after 1968.

2.1 The changes of 1968
Main differences

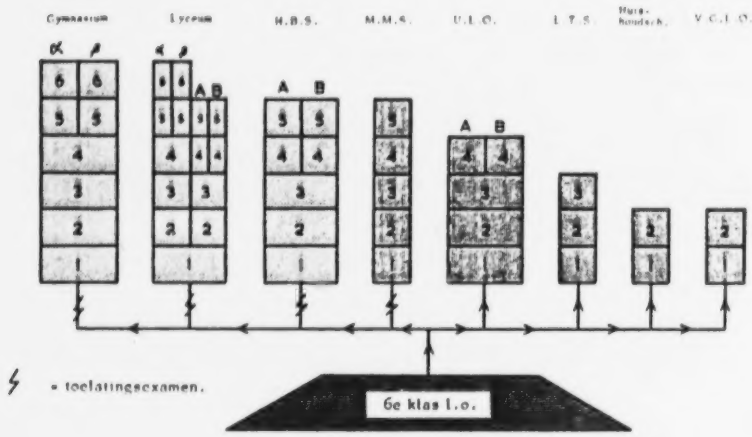
When the new Secondary Education Act came into effect, several processes of change set in simultaneously:
- A reorganisation of schooltypes.
- An innovation of educational content.
- A specification of teachers' competencies on three levels.

The changes were brought about in different areas within secondary education, such as vocational, pre-university, general secondary. It is general secondary education, more specifically the lower schools in it, that the project of social and political education had to provide for. Consequently our description will occasionally concentrate on the particular area of lower general secondary education for twelve-to sixteen-year-olds, including elementary vocational schools.

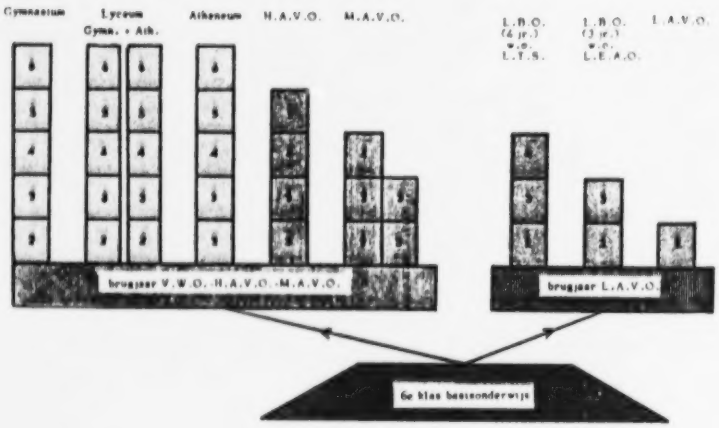
2.2 The structures '68 and after compared.

In the diagrams the structure before 1968 and the new one are visualised:

1. Bestaande toestand. 24 oktober 1967.



7. Nieuwe toestand per 1 augustus 1968.



The various types of schools are represented in vertical columns, numbering from bottom to top the years it will take minimally to complete a course. As the little arrows show, pupils come from the shaded quadrangle under the column structure. That quadrangle represents the sixth, and final year of primary school. Apart from the organisation of vertical columns and the different names they bear, the most prominent difference is visualised bij horizontal bars in the outline representing the situation after 1968. These horizontal bars are together the first year of present secondary education. The fact that there are two, in line with each other but clearly separated should not go unnoticed.

2.2.1 The schools system before 1968

Before as well as after 1968 an avarage 12-year-old Dutch school-ager leaves the elementary school. There the first six years of compulsory education are spent. Compulsory education, however ends at 16 (15 at the time when the new system was introduced) so, at the age of twelve, with yet another three years of still having to atttend school, a choice was to be made. A decisive choice; for the kind of education taken in the next period will in the majority of cases determine a complete future career. It is precisely the fact that so crucial a choice had to be made at such an early moment that was felt to do little justice to a large group of pupils. It obstructed a development towards more equal oppurtunities for all. Even more because it is known that these choices strongly depend on social and economical backgrounds. The schools system before 1968 reinforced this tendency in several ways:

- There was an enormous difference in 'culture' among elementary schools. In the course of years since 1920, they had even grown into different sorts of schools. Some provided preparation for the higher secondary schools, in six years. Their pupils would pass the entrance examination to pre-university schooltypes like 'gymnasium', 'lyceum' etc. for which they had been trained. Other primary schools did not prepare their pupils for this examination, they sometimes did not even complete elementary education within six years. There were even primary schools covering the complete school-age period of its pupils by offering an eight years' course. This means that a choice of primary school at the age of six already determined future careers.

- There were, grossly speaking, three options from which a 12-year-old could choose after leaving primary school, to continue education. A choice once made, if it was a 'real' that is a free choice, was definitive. Here again it was the individual 'school-cultures' of secondary schools that made for a great amount of rigidity, as will be explained further down.

2.2.2 The way it worked before '68

The first graphical representation shows how a pupil beginning a secondary-school career could choose:

First option: A twelve year-old primary school leaver takes an entrance examination to one of the higher ranked schools of secondary general education.

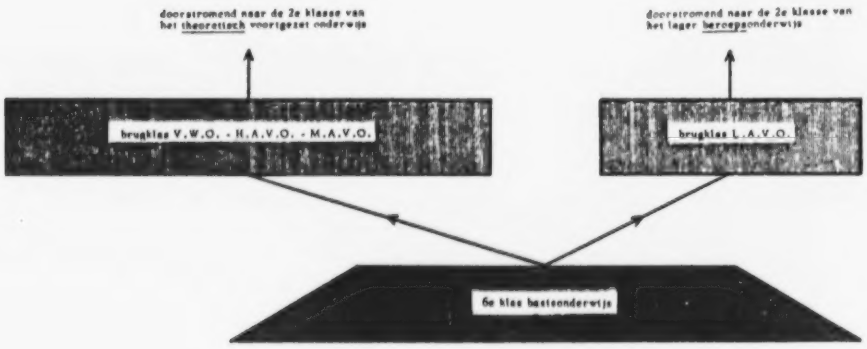
Second option: The twelve year-old enters the school-type styled U.L.O. in the diagram, which means Extended Primary Education. It offers a kind of general education only superficially comparable to that offered by the others.

Third option: The continuation of school was found by many 'less theoretically inclined' children in one of three schooltypes: lower technical schools, for boys preparing for a trade or vocation; an equivalent to this especially for girls offered training in domestic skills. There also existed a third type of school called V.G.L.O. which means continued ordinary elementary education. It provided centrally the sort of continuation that was also found inside several primary schools in their seventh and eighth forms.

The system of secondary schools before 1968 was a three tiered one, not only because of the differences already obvious from the way schools were 'chosen' for twelve year-old beginners. It was a hierarchical system, which does not only appaer from a comparison of teaching content. It also appears from the different sectors of study and employment the various schools gave access to.

9.

De brugklas bestaat uit 2 delen.


doorstromend naar de 2e klasse van het theoretisch voortgezet onderwijs
doorstromend naar de 2e klasse van het lager beroepsonderwijs
brugklas V.W.O. - H.A.V.O. - M.A.V.O.
brugklas L.A.V.O.
6e klas basisonderwijs

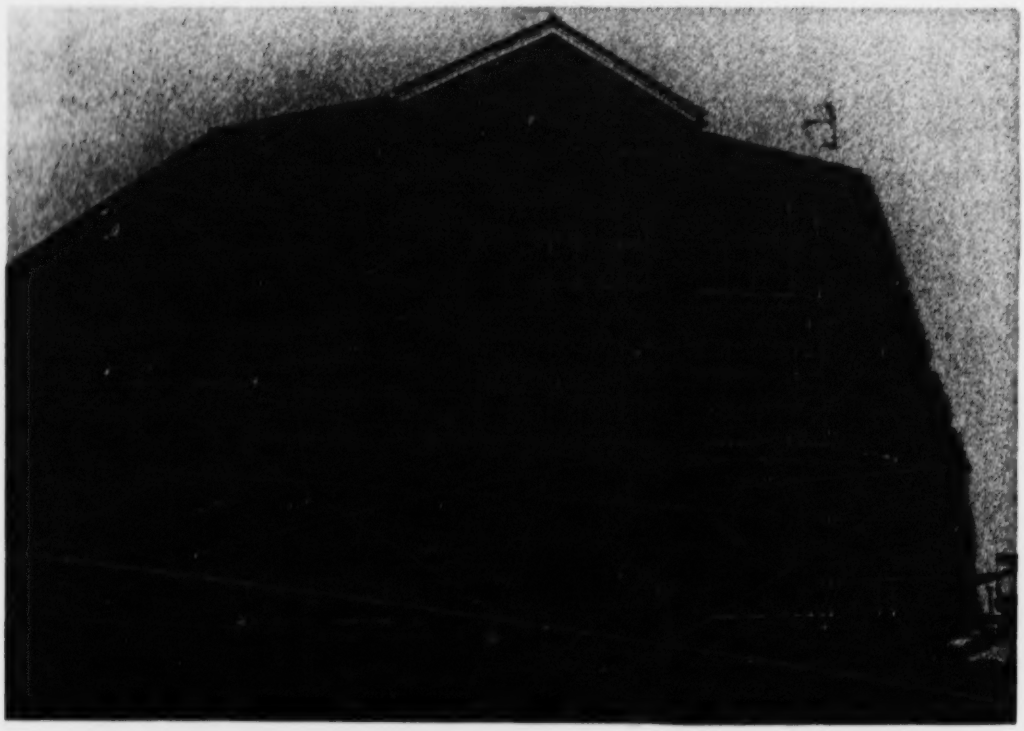
Gymnasium provided a broad general content including classical languages. It prepared its well endowed pupils for university its population would, more often than not, stem from the higher walks of life.

H.B.S. has become an acronym in its long existence. It is never referred to by the full expression 'Hogere Burgerschool' This would translate as School (for) Higher Citizens (Burgers); a name that reflects its origin in the 19 th Century's well defined class distinctions. It would be comparable to secondary modern (as opposed to classical) school. Its matriculants had access to University albeit that entering one of the philologically oriented studies would require an additional study of Greek and Latin for one or two years. Quite in accordance with its origin it also prepared for lots of careers ending in a senior function, both in civil and in commercial service.

Lyceum is a comparatively young variant, combining the curricula of H.B.S. and Gymnasium. It was organised in this way to make a choice for either of these possible at a later stage, usually after the first two years. In its organisation it prefigures the multilateral schools of our days, although the latter covers a far wider range.

M.M.S. translates as Secondary School for Girls.
Its academic standard was strikingly different from the other 'first choices' as is obvious from the fact that it gave access to a very small range of professional courses.

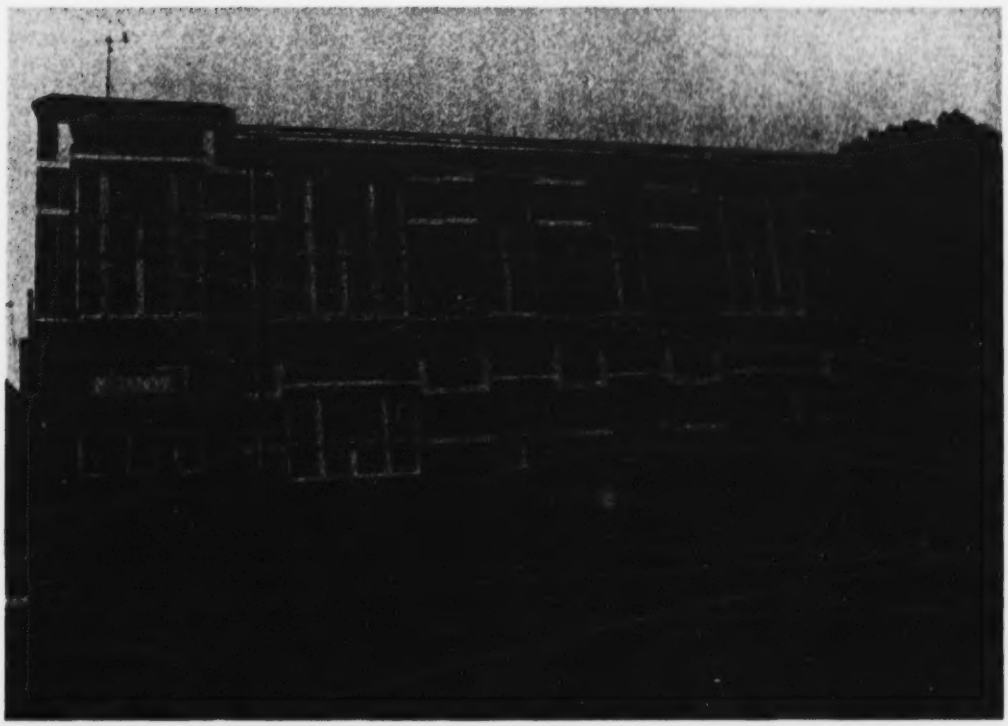
U.L.O. was called the second option before. It was that in various ways. First in a sociological sense, in that it was the natural choice fitting the aspirations of lower middle class children. Second option it was also for those pupils whose intellectual and otherwise mental capacities were better suited to this kind of school. Especially because it was more like the initial six years of primary education. It provided general education comprising all primary school subjects and adding to that three foreign languages, mathematics and knowledge of commerce.
This school prepared for various types of secondary vocational training, among which that for primary schoolteachers. It was also a form of final schooling. Many of its pupils entered the ranks of employees and petty officials. To some it was, however, the first rung on a long scale of home-study.



L.T.S. means Lower Technical School, it prepared mainly for employment immediately after school leaving. In many trades there existed evening classes and courses that continued on the basis of this L.T.S. schooling, like master courses for plumbers, electricians, etc.
Only the brighter students had a possibility of continuing their studies in secondary vocational schools.

Huishoud-school — refers to a very typically late 19th and early 20th Century Dutch version of education for girls. They were supposed to be best served with domestic skills preparing them for housewifely activities. The literal translation would almost be: "school for housewifery". After school its pupils were found in jobs like assistent sick-nursing, in gradually developing female functions like child care worker, etc., but also as salesgirls. In the beginning sixties this schooltype was well on its way to develop into a differentiated job and profession preparing type of education.

V.G.L.O. — meaning Continued Ordinary Primary Education had a two-fold function. Remedial in a sense that it offered otherwise 'normal' but slow learners an opportunity to accomplish primary education. Preparing for society, in a comparatively small number of cases, mostly, when boys were concerned. Their majority went on to L.T.S. For girls it was the easy way to accomplish the last years of compulsory education. Occasionally a pupil might venture to enlist in the first year of U.L.O.

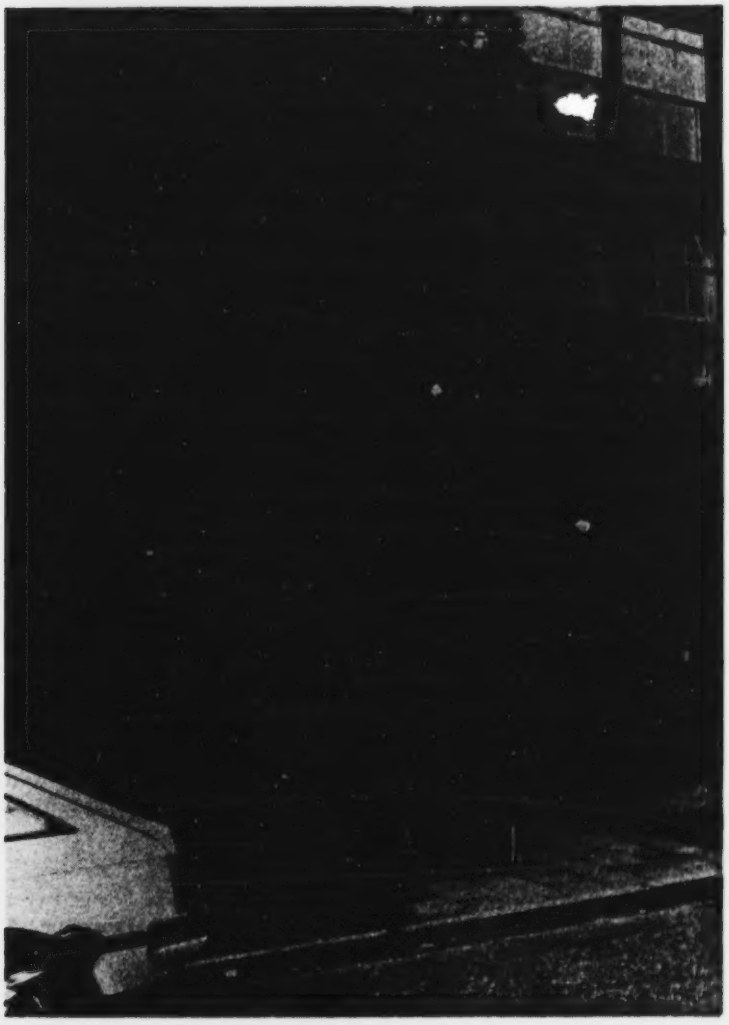


2.2.3 Rigidity of the system

Without going into much detail the description so far shows that the secondary schools system was rigid in more than one sense. Interchange of pupils was one way mostly: 'downward'. It was near to impossible for a bright (a really bright) student to move during courses from one school to a next higher one. Selective was the system, to a degree of callousness even, when it concerned dissident pupils. They could always move 'down' to a school supposed to be

easier. Selectivity was based on purely cognitive perfomance. Yet this always implied a disadvantage for those children who got meagre support from their own socio-cultural background.
Allocative one might call it for its capacity to shape pupils to fulfill a predictable place in society.
'Reproductive of a class-division in society' is the verdict given bij its strongest opponents

It remains to be seen in what way and to what measure the educational reform of 1968 has met the needs for change implied in the terms reproductive, allocative, selective, rigid.



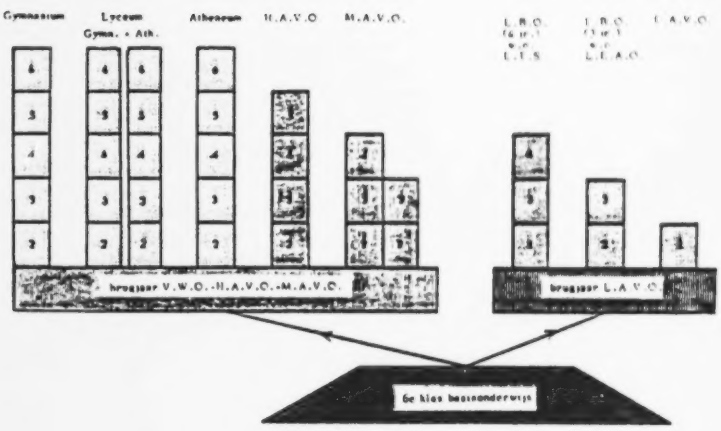
2.3 The schools system after '68

The diagram of the schools system as it was introduced in 1968 shows an organisation different from the preceding in three respects. First there is the introduction of a common first year for two groups of schools. One group is entirely devoted to general secondary education. In this group there is a differentiation into three levels. This has been achieved through the introduction of the second innovation: A new type of school has been introduced under the name of H.A.V.O., providing general education to a sufficient level for its pupils to enter higher schools for professional training.

The other three remaining schooltypes are also based on a common first year. Two of these prepare for vocational employment. Together they are called Lower Schools for Vocational Education (literally translated from L.B.O.) The third, called L.A.V.O. has been pretty short lived. It is in the diagram only to show how the system was changed in '68.
A minor but not unimportant change is, that the new legislation made no distinction between boys' and girls' schools in that it no longer mentions these.
Of the old system only Gymnasium has survived. Not only as a school type, but in most of the cases also as an independent school in its own right.
The third and perhaps even most fundamental change is not so much found in the types of schools and the distinctions of their teaching - levels. It is more to do with local organisation of secondary schools. They are increasingly brought together in organisations covering complete ranges of educational content on all three levels.

7.

Nieuwe toestand per 1 augustus 1968.



In many cases these levels are found in one building giving it the appearance of one school offering different types of education. Another way this merging is brought about consists in a common administration. In the fact that the first year pupils are all offered the same curriculum we find yet another coherence.
It is in this first year, referred to as bridge-period between primary and secondary education, however,that some of the disadvantages of the former system are still found. Already the fact that there are two different sorts of bridge-periods, one preparing for general education and one for vocational reveals the major drawback. There are still many children whose future careers are decided at the age of twelve. This time it depends on what type of 'bridge-period' they enter.

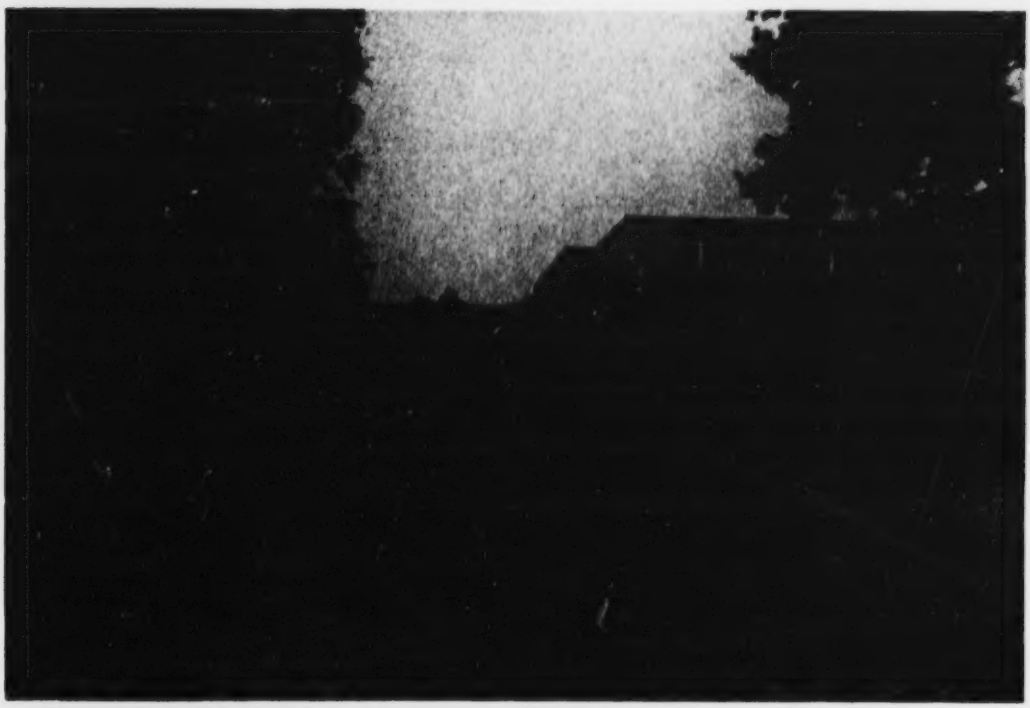
2.3.1 The way our new system works.
Twelve-year-old pupils still have to decide where to continue their education after primary school. They have two options, a choice between 'bridge' periods of a theoretical equivalence. However, they differ very much. This difference is expressed in curricular content. The basis of general secondary education has French for a subject whereas the vocational introduces into manual skills, to mention one difference.

Consequently the options of our primary school-leavers are:

1. Entering vocational school; sometimes after one year re-entering the first year of general education.

2. Entering the first year of general secondary education, which means postponing a choice of school-type. In some multilateral schools this choice may even be made after two years.

An option more or less outside these two is the first year of Gymnasium, offering te full theoretical content of a bridge period with the addition of Latin.



So now there are, as far as numbers are concerned, a majority postponing a definitive choice of secondary schooling and with it a choice of future career. The numerical minority choosing the preparing class in lower vocational schools on the other hand narrow their options down to a number of trades. So, on both ends of the scale nothing much has changed. There still are:
- Gymnasium - preparing for higher education on university level etc.
- Vocational schools training the workers on a level of manual skills.

What remains are the different levels of A.V.O. - which means General Continued (or secondary) Education, literally, plus Atheneum.

- Atheneum prepares for the same studies and starts in professional life as Gymnasium does. With the difference that it offers a wider variety of content to be chosen from by its pupils.
- H.A.V.O. adds the term 'Higher' to A.V.O. This is also a school offering a pretty wide range, preparing for the non university levels in professional and vocational training such as teacher training courses, professional tuition for health services etc.
- M.A.V.O. indicates bij means of its initial M. a level in the middle, literally between 'Lower' and 'Higher'. This type of school is conceived to offer the education wanted bij a broad majority of pupils whose future careers are characteristically those of the subalterns in many walks of life. Even after a continuation of studies in equally secondary technical or vocational schools to which also the brighter pupils of lower vocational schools find access.

The structure has gradually developed into a less rigorously selective but still very much allocative educational system. It certainly does not meet the need for a truly wide range within which our young generations can fully develop their talents. It is still felt to be reproductive of a socio-economically defined societal structure. What should take its place, an acceptable basis for definitive choices, a proper orientation towards capacities and possibilities is still very much subject of discussion in this country. Out of this discussion yet another type of school covering all education for 12 - 16 year olds is emerging in our days. Meanwhile minor measures within the legal framework have to an extent corrected one effect of the system: The disparity between the two systems of first-year introduction is now compensated by the fact that a number of subjects taught in both m.a.v.o. and l.b.o. have become formally equivalent. This is the result of regulations concerning levels of knowledge and skill to be shown in final exams. It works out in the continuations school-leavers of both mavo and l.b.o. find for their studies in secondary vocational schools.
It is against this background that the developments in the particular subject of social and political education should be understood: Mavo is nowadays referred to as Lower Secondary general education. So the lower secondary general and lower vocational schools in the title of this essay exist as a result of one process, that of general organisation and readjustments in their curriculums afterwards.

2.4 The educational content re-defined

Another important change will be evident from a comparison of school-leaving examinations. Before 1968 they would comprise a range of twelve to fifteen or more subjects. There might be differences, for almost all schools were divided into two streams. One more mathematical, the other more linguistic. It is shown in the diagram (pg. 12) as
a. vertical division, marked a, for the more linguistic.
b. for mathematics and science-oriented curriculums.

Since 1968 diplomas are obtained after an examination of only 7 subjects (6 in Mavo). They can partly be chosen by the pupils, who are in this way thought to define a 'package' fitting their own aptitudes and purposes. The latter with a view to future career intentions. This is by no means a simplification, because the subjects chosen are studied to a pretty high level. Choices are never made before the first two (m.a.v.o.) or even three or four years (h.a.v.o. and v.w.o.) are past. That period is considered long enough to allow pupils to decide their future plans.
Characteristic of the development that set in with the introduction of this new system has been a sometimes pretty rigorous revision of subject and content.
It would exceed the scope of this essay to venture a description of all the changes in education content. They may be summed up in a few tendencies most of these changes have in common. First there is a gradual development towards more relevance. We find its expression in an intention to provide pupils with skills and knowledge that will serve them in society. There is, moreover, the tendency to interpret pupils' societal requirements in re-assessing educational content. It reflects in developing-activities carried out in S.L.O. Projects have been carried out or are being carried out in various subject areas, like Economy, Chemistry, mathematics, biology, foreign languages - introduction.

Second change is the introduction of new subject matter. Some of these introductions one might say the less widely spread are Spanish and Russian as foreign languages. They are not so much innovations as simply a broadening of educational supply.

3. Social and Political Studies

A far more important introduction, as much for its innovative force as for the fact that it is not an optional subject, is Social and Political Studies. This subject was not found in the curriculums of secondary schools before 1968.
Social and political studies are now in the curriculums of all secondary education. Its introduction, however, was a very peculiar event in the history of Dutch education.
The Secretary of State at that time responsible for secondary education decided that social and political education would be mentioned as a subject to be taught. He also decided that its content should not be specified. He justified this by referring to the need of creative freedom in education.

For the sector of the new educational system under discussion, the l.b.o. - and m.a.v.o - schools, this lack of specification caused a serious problem. Its teachers had little or no idea of what it was they were expected to teach. Moreover, they had been used to work under conditions that would hardly challenge their creativity in defining content. Up to 1968 they had been used to teach extremely well specified subjects albeit that their content was somehow outdated. A good deal of their job was based on having a precisely defined corpus of knowledge to teach. Teaching-experience to a degree of routine even, had made them very capable tutors for young people preparing to pass an exam. They needed only a few tools:
- first there had to be a well defined, ordered content; prefarably in a couple of text-books. A teaching-learning package as it is called nowadays.
- second there had to be precisely defined subject-contents requested as minimal in examinations. Such definitions used to exist for all other subjects; they were very effective, rather more based on unwritten rules than on regulations.

Now in the case of social and political studies, or 'knowledge about society' as it was literally called, none of these condition were met. The subject matter was vaguely indicated, concepts of it were widely different, depending in many cases on a teacher's personal views. There were no regulations, the new subject was not even in the list of subjects to be examined at the end of courses.
For teachers who had up to 1968 worked in a tradition of exact knowledge of what had to be known and mastered by their pupils and what not, this situation amounted to something like a quandary. Gradually it appeared in the following years that the interpretations the subject of social studies was given, could be seen to reflect two different conceptions. In one it was a subject to be mainly based on knowledge of sociological themes, insights in the working of the law, goverment etc. A knowledge to contribute to the pupils' future functioning as citizens in a democratic state.

The other concept of the subject was that of an oppurtunity to train pupils to take their stand; not to go defenseless into social competition. It would render them capable of creative communication in a world to be improved. The coincidence in 1968 of a political measure effectuated in educational change in the Netherlands, although prepared in a preceding decade, with the uprisings in Paris expressing discontent over contemparary society made itself conspicuous in the years after. This second concept of providing pupils with tools and means for their emancipation found the strongest support among teachers who experienced their pupils' social and economical status as a disadvantage imposed upon them by society. These two conceptions of social and political education were in 1978 well on their way to grow into a set of fixed principles of controversy.

3.1 The teachers

It has already been remarked that the teachers in the schools for lower general and vocational education had a particular position. The need for a curriculum to be developed, including above all ample specifications of the subject of social studies, cannot very well be explained without paying attention to the teachers' backgrounds. Before 1968 secondary education in the Netherlands was a three tiered system as was shown in the preceding chapter. After 1968, as has also been shown, the system can still be seen to exist of three levels. The division appears to be of a lesser rigidity. Before 1968 there existed, as far as secondary education is concerned, differences in teachers' qualifications that matched the three tiered system almost perfectly. After 1968 a new nomenclature was introduced specifying these same teaching qualifications. This was done with a view to defining teachers' legal status in the new system. In a way revealing the stratifiction of the schools-system, by ordinal numerals, specifying with them both the level of education to be served and it's financial reward. So since 1968 we have first-, second-, and third level qualifications for the teaching profession. These qualifications are distinguished in correlation with the higher or lower levels of academic content required. Consequently we have teachers in the first level possessing post-graduate qualifications obtained in a university or in a course considered to be equivalent. There are teachers on the second level who obtained their degree in a teacher trainings-institute or -again- in a comparable course. On the third level are found the teachers who are initially qualified as primary school teachers. They possess additional qualifications in one of the subjects taught in extended primary education.
After 1968 new teacher-trainings institutions for the third and second levels came into being. Their students began gradually to fill the ranks of the teaching profession in the mid-seventies. Consequently they did not very much influence the development in schools or in subject oriented teachers' associations in the first years of innovation after '68. In later years this has changed considerally. The older generation of third-level teachers, it has already been said, have a primary school teachers's qualification. Usually they possess extra qualifications, obtained in private study. There are courses for these and also rather severe state examinations. They cover the subjects taught originally -before 1968- in extended primary education other than in ordinary primary education. So the list is not very long, it comprises Mathematics,

Knowledge of Commerce and book-keeping, French, German and English. In later years courses in Spanish were added. All other regular subjects like Dutch language and literature, geography, history etc. were considered to be sufficiently served by the knowledge acquired in initial teachers training. It actually used to be so.
However, there existed no special qualification for the new subject of social and political studies. This was another gap in the policy of introducing the new subject. Even worse was the measure to declare every teacher who wanted it, qualified for the subject. They only had to apply for it. The result was that teachers who traditionally taught well-defined subjects to achieve well-specified teaching aims were now completely at a loss.

Summary
the changes in the secondary schools-system of 1968 brought about:
- An entirely different system of schools, less rigidly compartmentalised but still hierarchically ordered in three levels, based on a common first year.
- Content changes to support a tendency towards developing aims based on societal needs, this implied the introduction of social and political studies.
- In certain areas the changes caused uncertainty like in the case of social studies in m.a.v.o. - and l.b.o.- schools.
- The aim of more equal opportunities for all pupils was not fully realised.
- The subject of social and political studies was introduced to serve two purposes, that of developing good citizenship on one side, on the other its aim was pupils' social emancipation. A clear balance of these aims did not exist, owing to the fact that no teaching-objectives had been defined.
- Teachers in the m.a.v.o. -l.b.o. area were not sufficiently theoretically equipped for the new subject of social studies.

- The subject of social and political education was strongly in need of clear definitions and directions to fit a common practice to the indications, provided in the new act.
- The subject of social and political education had been left unspecified overtly not to interfere with creativity in the educational profession; in reality however, this was done to avoid political controversy, over its content and aims.

3.2 Considerations

Questions of content and policy

The S.L.O. does a great deal of her work on application. That is to say the S.1.O. does not automatically react in this way. When an application is made, it is first analysed and discussed by specialists who are also familiar with the given educational setting as well as with the subject concerned. They add a note of recommendations to the application which is then put before the Governing Board os the S.L.O. It is this board that desides what kind of action is to follow. If the application is accepted a plan will be made in the bureau, outlining the sorts of products to the designed. Like in the case of Social and Political Studies where both teaching-materials and curriculum guidelines were needed. The plan also estimates the required invesment of time and money. Once this project-plan is approved -by the Governing Board as well as by the applicant- the projectactivities start. Mostly these are also supervised, formally by the Board, who are informed through regular reports. Final, political responsibility of all formal S.1.O.-activities in the field of education is borne by this Governing Board. Its members are appointed by the Minister of Education on the recommendation of one of the umbrella organizations representing education in various ways, both according to denamination and, or educational subject-content.
On consensus in this Board it depends if and how action is to be taken by the S.L.O. Consensus however, is not always easily reached.

In the case of social studies questions were discussed concerning the relative urgency of the work asked and its place in the institute's policy. This time the discussion even went into details of educational content. Such a profound discussion does not occur very often. The explanation of it is, that social and political education as a school-subject cannot but bring to discussion the prevailing standards of society. Add this to the fact that both pupils and teachers will be interested in what is of current interest at a given moment and it will be clear that a certain apprehension of indoctrination would not be unjustified.

In the ten years of its existence, unspecified as it was, the subject had already got a variety of individual interpretations in the classrooms. Some of these interpretations could hardly hope for approval by our Board. They wished to see the room for indoctrination by individual teachers reduced to a minimum. Consequently there was a wish to produce as narrow definitions as possible of both teaching aims and content. On the other hand there also existed a faction in favour of a wide definition, which would allow for social and political studies to become a means in the process of consciousness-raising. Although these points of view may seem diametrically opposed to each other there was no difference of opinion on what standards of our society are to be maintained through education.

Another point at issue was the concept of educational content as such. Some authorities in the field pronounced themselves very much in favour of scientifically orientated cognitive content descriptions. Others would maintain that knowledge of sociological theory has a predictably short shelf life, metaphorically compared to that of fresh fish. They were strongly in favour of what is called socio-cultural training, expressing its educational aims rather more in terms of attitudes to be developed. The discussion led to a number of decisions characterising the project for the time to come. They concern the theory upon which the project activities were to be based, the way the project would operate and the publications, such as teaching materials and curriculum proposals to be produced.

They also concern several areas of special attention:
- For the definition of content the denominational differences, as they are expressed in the organisations of schools, had to be taken into account.
- A well balanced number of different elements would have to constitute the curriculum covering the subject. This would require a selection of content based on theoretical insight.
- Within the limits of a pretty well defined curriculum there had to be enough latitude to guarantee a minimum of educational freedom.

In the course of discussions it appeared that there was basically less controversy than might have been expected. Most of the questions raised and of the suggested answers were equally alive among the applicants, the teachers of the subject, and among the members of both staff and Board of the S.L.O. In the association of teachers of the subject there was -quite naturally- a strong preference for practical teaching problems to be solved. Consequently problems of segmenting and of sequencing the teaching materials had to be looked into during the process of defining content.

3.3 Decisions

Out of all discussion a number of decisions emerged, defining the course for a project to develop a curriculum. The project was to start in august 1980. The first tasks to be accomplished were the drawing up of a plan of activities and the description of basic assumptions, theoretical insights and views of this particular area in education. Such a description is usually made in the beginning of a project. It is called a basic vision, a theoretical study ending in the summing up of positions taken. It will describe a number of lines to be followed in a working strategy and connect them with their theoretical background. In this way a basis is provided for the work to be done in that it warrants coherence among the different actions. The procedure to arrive at this basic vision differed from the normal one that is usually followed in the S.L.O.-offices. This time the basic vision was not formulated by a couple of staff members and subsequently put before the Board for approval. It was conceived and written in a process of communication with the Board, who appointed two of its members to maintain contact. The two members represented Roman Catholic and Protestant education respectively; the final result was a second version of the basic vision arguing the desirable form and the choice of content to be given to the subject in a curriculum for twelve- to approximately

sixteen-year-old pupils. One very important result of this joint activity was a consensus, related in the next chapter. It was proposed to describe so cald 'thematic fields' covering in a global way the content to be taught. The basic vision had a three-fold function in addition to that of ascertaining coherence:

- Informing the Governing Board of the S.L.O. formally on the direction the development of curricular content would take.
- Informing schools participating in the project on the working-strategies of the project-group.
- Providing information for a working party installed to prepare guidelines for school-leaving exams.

4. Action-Strategy

For the method of work it was decided to begin by what was metaphorically called a series of lightning actions; directed at the production of basic curriculum materials. The actions consisted in relatively short periods of close cooperation with teachers in the field, covering the complete development of a series of lessons in a given theme. Such a theme could be 'Labour' with all its connotations of employment, work, work ethics, division of labour, distribution of work and so on. The first thing done, would be to select, to narrow down one might say, the subjects within the chosen theme. These kind of choices were made by the teacher cooperating in the project and a subject-specialist from our institute. Materials were selected, teaching -and learning- activities were prepared. In short a lesson plan to organise a series of lessons covering about six weeks was drawn up, containing what was to be taught and how.

The actual teaching that followed went on under close observation, while the theme was being taught in a number of parallel classes. This enabled the observer to pay attention to every aspect that would be of importance in the next step: that of generalizing the experiences and evaluating the content. The upshot of a day's

observations normally comprised a large quantity of written notes and a video-recording. They were taken from different classes where the same theme was taught by the same teacher. With this information the teacher and our subject-specialist evaluated the process. They sorted out what of the materials served its purpose, distinguished objectives formulated, from those resulting from preconceived ideas and concepts. Very much attention was paid to the didactic process resulting from the way the teaching materials were planned. For this purpose observation focused on pupils' responses. The aim of this procedure was to gain an insight in the quality of the content thus developed with a view to its applicability elsewhere.
As general principle it was seen that for the teaching to meet the standard of effect expressed in its aims it would be necessary to elicit as much and as diverse response from pupils as was possible. This would imply an offer of the content abundant in leads and starting points for pupils' activities like role-playing, simulations, discussions, reporting and so on.

Once a theme had been tried out it was prepared for introduction in the next cycle of the project. This was a more extensive phase. Whereas in the first phase only two schools participated in the so-called lightning actions, there were about eight involved in the second. The main objective was to try out on a larger, but not too large a scale the materials developed. In this way a number of thematic units were made, particularisations of themes fitting the curriculum. The curriculum itself is thought of as an enumeration of thematic fields, six in all, which are shown on the left in the diagram.

THEMATIC FIELDS	EXAMPLES OF THEMES
1. EDUCATION	FAMILY, RELATIONSHIPS, MASS MEDIA, YOUTH
2. HOME, HOUSE AND ENVIRONMENT	ENVIRONMENT, HOUSING AND POLITICS
3. WORK AND LEISURE	UNEMPLOYMENT, SOCIAL BENEFITS, RECREATION
4. TECHNOLOGY AND SOCIETY	TECHNOLOGY AND ETHICS, THE INFORMATION SOCIETY, BIOTECHNOLOGY
5. STATE AND SOCIETY	PARLIAMENTARY DEMOCRACY, POLITICAL PROCESSES, GOVERNMENT AND CITIZEN, CRIME AND CRIMINAL LAW
6. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS	THE DEVELOPMENT ISSUE, ARMAMENT/ DISARMAMENT, HUMAN RIGHTS, EUROPEAN COOPERATION

Each thematic field covers a very wide domain. Together they sum up the content of a curriculum without specifying it to a degree that could meet with individual objection from one or two of our denonimational schoolorganisations. It has proved a very good basis for consent. On the right a column of themes is filled in, more or less as an exemplary way in which the fields may be filled. This grid allows a maximum of creative use, as is shown bij the way units have been developed to fit it.

A theme proper is worked out in a teaching learning unit. It comprises everything needed for a series of lessons. Of very great importance is its being shaped and organised in a way to allow of a very wide range of learning experiences. This is also one of the principles underlying the work because it has been noticed that no two learning processes are identical. Consequently a theme offers as many clues and as wide a divergence of pupils'activities as possible. We might call this the principle of optimal variegation. The group of schools participating in the second phase, working with the thematic units and with their comments contributing to more generalised descriptions of the subject matter is refferred to as a respondent circle.
The purpose of this phase in the project work was to gather information on the way teachers applied the results of the first developing round. Their differences in approach and in handling the materials were carefully noted and taken account of. In this way adaptations were made in the curriculum, among others by reformulating teaching-objectives. From this second phase a draft school-curriculum for societal and political education was derived. In yet another, wider circle the school curriculum, together with teaching materials and teacher manuals got their final try out. This circle consisted of approximately twenty schools. Their

contributions would finally afford an insight in the applicability of the products.The widest possible experience with the newly developed materials was sought. Aiming at what is called a model for a curriculum.

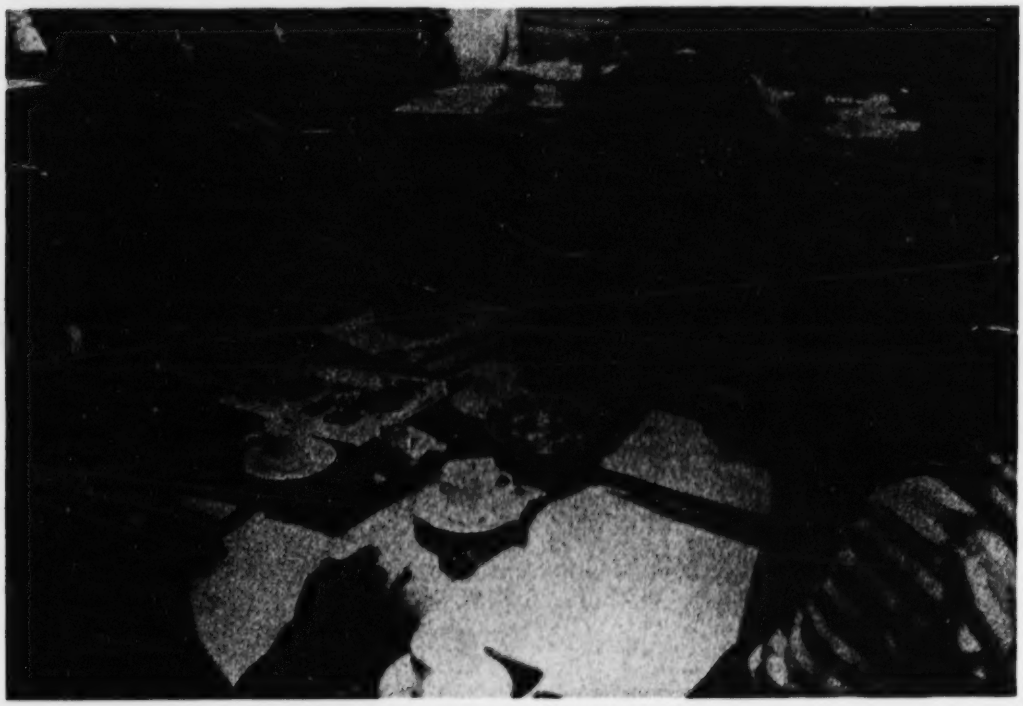
4.1 Communication

The working group charged with the job of curriculum development for social and political education,depended more than several others of our institute on the opinions existing elsewhere. This meant that they needed a well organized system of communications. It also required a well balanced strategy to get the final outcomes of the project legitimatized. To achieve this it was necessary that the curriculum-content proved to be acceptable to all different users according to their confessional backgrounds. Next to its being practicable, of course. For these prerequisites to be met it was best to have crucial decisions made at the earliest possible moment in the developing process. An organisation to meet these needs was built up in the beginning and it lasted -with slight modifications- throughout the seven years of the project. The participants in the processes of communication had their place in one or more of the following groups:

1. The projectgroup consisting of two subject specialists to who in a later stage a third and even a fourth were added. Their work was the actual developing work in cooperation with the schools.
2. The 'developing-circle' the first phase of the work was done there as is described. (2 schools)
3. The 'respondent circle' 8 schools
4. The wider group $\pm$ 20 schools called 'following circle'.
5. The steering committee, comprising the project group with two specialists on a managerial level had for its task to keep project activities in line with over all SLO policy. It had ten meetings yearly.
6. The so called advisory core committee, a small party of four accademic specialists, in sociology, political science, antropology and education. Their task was to support the project group with expert knowledge. It had approximately, 12 meetings yearly.
7. The counselling group consisting of members with different interests in the field: didacticians, tutors from teacher-training institutes, inspectors, teachers participating in the project etc. This group contributed to the formulation of viewpoints concerning content and scope of the subject. Their task was basically advisory, it was carried out in six yearly meetings, usually concentrating on planning, proceeds, and also on the content of project-activities.

In the beginning the core committee was strongly involved with the work done. In the second phase when the number of participants expanded, the accent was shifted to the counselling group. The advisory core committee was assimilated into the counselling group. The means to keep all participants informed was found in a periodically issued bulletin called 'Over Maatschappijleer', 'on social and political studies'. Another addition to the means of communication were questionnaires. It was also tried alhough not very successfully, to introduce an evaluation based on standard forms to be filled in. This idea was abandoned; in its place came a

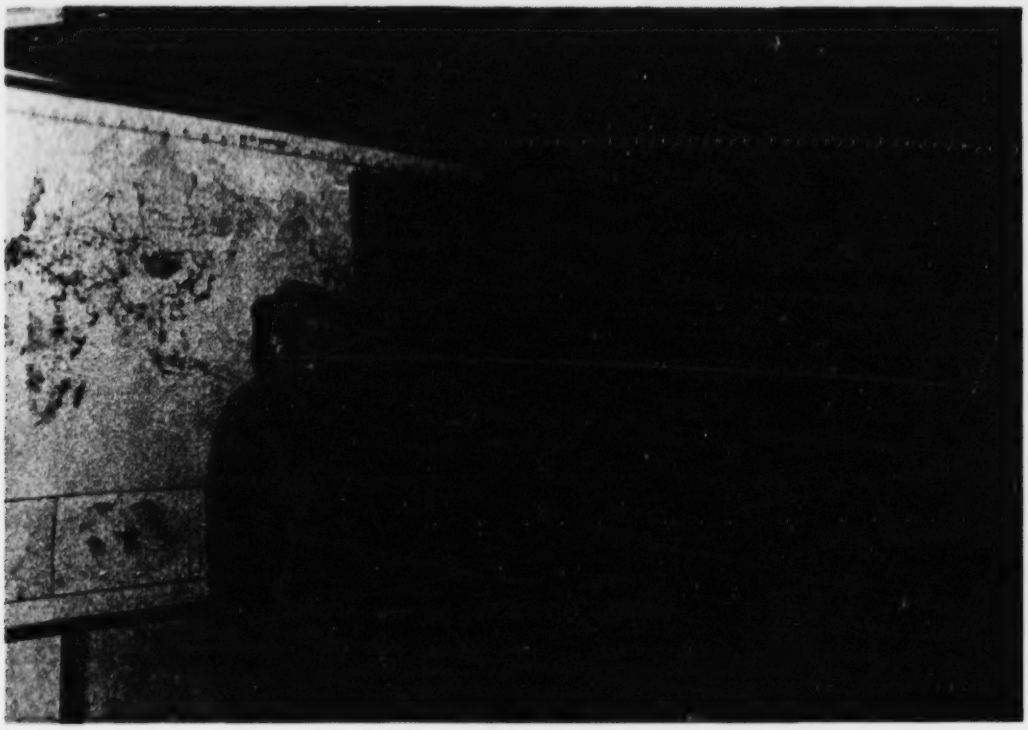
small scale research study concentrating on questions concerning the use of S.L.O.-material in schools. A larger scale study of implementation aspects was taken up by the University of Twente.



4.2 Development of materials

Developing work was mainly based on the principles of
- Societal demands and learners' needs of knowledge: teaching objectives.
- Contiguity, a maximum of self-evidence and learners experience.
- Variegation to match as many learningstyles as possible.

The outcome of this work is found in a large number of texts, published in various forms according to their purposes. It may be helpful to classify them in the following categories:
- Classroom materials
- Teachers' practical instructions
- Guidelines for planning the curriculum
- Proposed curriculum content
- Ancillary texts used in the developing process
- Articles, contributions, lectures.



All in all there are about sixty different texts, published in one of the categories mentioned. Some of these have, occasionally been subject of discussion in international conferences. From a paper introduced on one of these occasions are cited the following exemplary passages, to show how a particular theme is worked out on an abstract level.

In determining the learning matter to go with a certain theme, the following approaches are used, where relevant:

- *what is problematic and/or controversial about the theme?*
- *what is its relation to fundamental problems in society?*
- *what interests or balances of power are at stake?*
- *what is the historical background?*
- *what can be done about the problem? What solutions are available?*
- *what are the views of social/political groups?*
- *which points of view, which arguments are possible?*

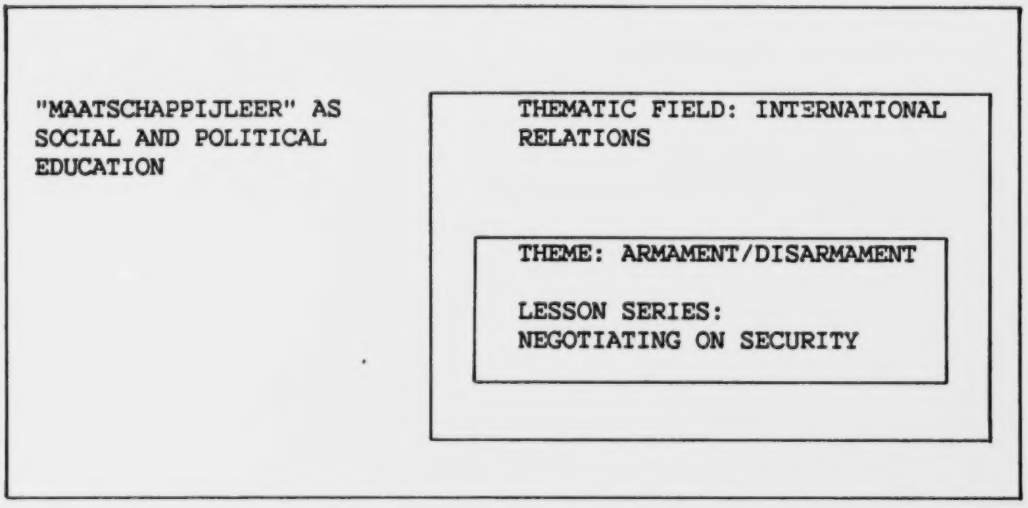
In short this involves:

1.political and legal aspects;
2.social and economic aspects;
3.socio-cultural aspects.

This sums up a number of essential characteristics of "maatschappijleer"..... The topic "negotiating on security" can be included within the thematic field of intrnational Relations, and form an intetral part of the theme: armament/disarmament. Of course, the topic also has certain things in common with other thematic fields, such as State and Society and Technology and Society.

The diagram on this page shows the coherence described. It will have been noticed, that a thematic field is invariant, defined as part of the curriculum. Within it the theme is conceivable as somewhat more independent. In a school the thematic field may be covered by a choice of theme(s), of which the actual one in the scheme is an instant. A lesson series, finally is not so much embedded in the theme as it is an equivalent of it, pedagogically shaped. That is to say the theme chosen is for the purpose of a particular class covered by a series of lessons. This may mean that a different set of lessons may cover the same theme in a different educational setting.

To visualize this in a diagram:


"MAATSCHAPPIJLEER" AS SOCIAL AND POLITICAL EDUCATION
THEMATIC FIELD: INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS
THEME: ARMAMENT/DISARMAMENT
LESSON SERIES: NEGOTIATING ON SECURITY

QUESTIONS FOR STRUCTURING THE LESSON SERIES ON NEGOTIATION

In recent years, the SLO project team for "Maatschappijleer" had developed a number of experimental teaching kits in close cooperation with teachers in the field. These sample kits have been developed along the lines of the model ....discussed below.

QUESTIONS TO WICH THE LESSON PLAN GIVES ANSWERS.

A lesson plan is a document in which the starting points, objectives, subject matter, teaching materials, working methods and testing methods are given for a series of lessons on one theme.

The questions to which the lesson plan should supply answers are:

a. Why does the teaching and learning take place?

b. What is taught and learnt?

c. How is this taught and learnt?

d. How are the results assessed?

Note to a.:

What are the general aims of the lesson plan about "negotiating on security"?
- *What are the product goals: knowledge and insight.*
- *What are the process goals: attitudes and skills.*
- *How can the objectives be stated in terms of questions for pupils? For example:*

CENTRAL QUESTION: WHAT FACTORS PLAY AN IMPORTANT ROLE IN POLITICAL NEGOTIATIONS ON PEACE AND SECURITY?
Historical factors, economic factors, political-legal factors, geographical factors, cultural factors, technological factors, ideological factors.

What role do the media play in the way we see the world around us?

What does the (Dutch) goverment do towards maintaining or increasing security?

What have been the most important developments in the field of security and armament since 1945?

Which social groups try to influence the goverment's policy in matters of security? What views do these various groups have?

What is the role of international treaties, organizations and negotiations in this policy?

Note to b.:

What are the central basic concepts, and consequently what is the central subject matter?
For example:
- *peace, security, arms race, culture, power, influence, policy, social determinedness, conflict, technology , negotiation. etc.*
- *Which concepts and subconcepts are discussed in which lessons?*

In the English version of another publication the theme of Crime and Criminal law is discussed and worked out. To give some insight in how a theme is carried out in a lesson-plan the following pages are also cited.

The lesson plan "crime and criminal law" as a theme in social and political studies at school

In close cooperation with school practice....a series of lessons has been designed for 14-16-year-old pupils in lower vocational education. In spite of, or perhaps rather because of, the unfamiliar approach to these social phenomena, the results may be called promising. In all pupils, a willingness was found to look at the things happening around them in a different way.

SURVEY

. *Title: How do I look at, react to, and judge events?*

. *General objectives, converted into questions for the pupils*

- *When do we call an event a criminal offence? Why?*
- *What do we expect to happen in such a case?*
- *What actually happens when something becomes known to the police as a criminal offence?*
- *What other reactions are possible to events we call problematic?*
- *What were the reactions in other times and other cultures to what we call "crime"?*
- *How do I judge certain events myself, and what are my arguments?*

Lesson 1. Introduction to the theme

Object *To arouse the pupils' interest in the subject by giving them a bird's-eye view of all sorts of aspects (obligations and prohibitions, police, jurisdiction, the purpose of punishment, public reactions etc., etc.) of the central issues.*

Means *A problem-posing documentary in which the issue is comprehensibly discussed in its entirety, a true-to-life journalistic newspaper story with questions and assignments for the pupils.*

Lesson 2. When do we speak of a problematic event? What must happen, and why?

Object *The pupils define the concept of crime, realize that different judgements are made, and discover that a different judgement leads to a different reaction (personal situation).*

Means *Series of slides showing ten different events (violence, natural catastrophe, fraud, theft, discrimination, vandalism, etc.) with brief comments and a list of questions on items such as recognition, how bad? (5-point scale), reaction, how?*

Lesson 3. How does criminal law work? To what purpose? Who plays a part in it? What are their tasks?

Object *Pupils know the essentials of the functioning of the system of criminal law.*

Means *Overhead sheets with question and answers about an example from actual practice.*

Lesson 4. What are the effects of contact with criminal law and what are the results of penal solutions?

Object *To grant pupils critical insight into the objects, effects and results of criminal law*

Means *Text with questions on the actual functioning of criminal law: the chance of being caught, selection, figures, the role of the media, the position of the lower classes.*

Lesson 5. *What reactions are there to events?*
What causes them?
Which sorts of reactions are possible?

Object *The pupils know why people react differently and realize that events need not be settled penally (social circumstances).*

Means *A survey of the pupils' reaction in lesson 2, and related to this diagram of the various sorts of reactions with the intentions and effects of these sorts of reactions.*

Lesson 6. *How was "crime" handled in other times and in other cultures?*

Object *The pupils realize that in other times, in other societies, under other circumstances, reactions to events we call "crime" are different (historical/cultural/determination, tradition).*

Means *Pupils formulate a number of hypotheses on the resolution of conflicts before and during the Middle Ages and in an Indian culture.*

Lessons 7, 8, 9, *How do we judge recognizable events, and what solutions do we choose?*

Object *To independently assimilate and apply the information gathered up till now, working in groups, with a view to analysing a "file" and expressing an argumented standpoint.*

Means *Various files (vandalism, theft, hooliganism, etc.) with background information on: the social context, what actually happened, possible causes, the standpoints of those involved, reactions from society, figures, various solutions, etc. In short: relevant, sound information which contributes to learning to choose responsibly.*

Lesson 10. What do they think of it?

Object — *Presentation of the answers found in lesson 7, 8 and 9, and debate with each other and with guests from the world of judicature, police, ex-prisoners, rehabilitation, the court.*

Means — *Forum discussion, in which the standpoints of the pupils must feed the debate with the guests.*

N.B.:
The lesson plan includes:
- *background information for the teacher*
- *teachers' guidelines for the series of lessons, with a more precise indication of the place of this theme in a year's program for social and political studies*
- *pupils' text and material with descriptions of lessons.*

5. Curriculum-Documents

The preceding pages show examples of texts produced for the schools participating in the developing process. The S.L.O. does not produce textbooks. In the Netherlands as in the U.K., the U.S.A., France, the F.R.G and many other countries that is the work of educational publishers.

Therefore these and many other similar texts used in school-classes, are passed on to one of the publishing companies; to be turned into text-books. On the basis of a contract the S.L.O. will then participate, usually by giving advice with the models it has provided. A contract of this kind has been drawn up recently to publish textbooks for social and political studies.
Although they have served a very important purpose, these teaching learning materials are not the main result of the project group's work. Their task it was to develop a curriculum, which means producing knowledge to be applied on different levels. In general we therefore distinguish the documents produced in three categories:

1. Common core curriculum documents describing for a particular type of school the content of a given subject.

2. School curriculum-publications, usually in the form of manuals and directives to help teaching teams in their planning of school curriculums.

3. Lesson-plans and teaching materials to go with them. Either to be used directly - as is done in schools participating in a developing-project, or to exemplify the way curriculum-elements are actualised in real teaching activities.

5.1 The Manual

Not always are the publications finally resulting from several years of developing-activities absolutely divided along these lines. This is shown in the manual finally published. It is meant to provide an aid in planning the subject in a school curriculum. It does so, by way of showing the relation with what is nowadays called a core curriculum. So both are found in one book, called: "De Planning van Maatschappijleer" (Planning Social and Political Studies) A sort of comprehensive publication covering both the core curriculum and the ways it works out into individual schoolcurriculums. This manual is an instrument in the hand of school authorities, principals and teachers charged with the subject.
The four parts it consists of are:

1. *'De inhoud van maatschappijleer'*
   (The content of social and political education)
   It gives a broad definition of the general objective followed by sets of teaching aims derived from the constituents of that definition.

2. *'De planning van maatschappijleer op school'*
   (The planning of social and political studies in the school') It is a guideline containing suggestions, examples, directives, to enable a teaching team to organise their work in the subject of social and political education. They are supposed to fill in their part of a complete school curriculum which has to offer information on four points.
   - *Why and to what purpose the subject is learnt.*
   - *What is taught and learnt.*
   - *How teaching and learning take place.*
   - *How the results are evaluated.*

3. *'Leermiddelen en werkvormen'*
   (Educational equipment and procedures)
   This part of the manual describes educational equipment and teaching procedures. It discusses the use of audio-visual media in paragraphs, each devoted to one of them. Elucidating also on the questions why and in connection with what these media are best applied. An appendix with lists of documentaries and addresses where to obtain them is added.

4. *'Bronnen om te raadplegen'*
   (Sources to consult)
   This fourth part consists of a reasoned catalogue, describing all kind of sources that can be used in preparing the content of lessons. It discusses textbooks and other educational materials, it provides addresses where guest speakers are found. Also the availability of what are called background materials, a list of literature concerning didacties and handbooks are described.

In its structure the manual reflects near to precisely the request formulated in 1979 (pg 1) for "an instrument to translate the over all curriculum (...) into content and organisation of the subject in the school". It was explained before how this particular need has risen from changes in the schoolsorganisation.
Taking into account that no 'over all' curriculum, now referred to as core-curriculum existed at the time this request was made, it will be clear that the first chapter of our manual is the result of a deep discussion. It deserves some closer attention.
The discussion started almost immediately when the S.L.O decided to turn their hand to developing a curriculum for social and political education. The landmarks of this discussion are two documents describing basic visions, respectively published in 1981 and '83. They contributed to the formulation of objectives and aims to be achieved by the social and political education offered in the lower tiers of secundary education. It was showen in chapter 3 and 4, into what kind of problems the new subject had grown. Part one of the manual devotes six pages to the summing up of the principles laid down in those documents. They are reflected by the way the objective of the subject is formulated.

"Social and political education is directed at developing knowledge, insights and skills in pupils allowing them to grow in an ability to

handle actual social and political phenomena in a critical and creative manner.

This definition shows a synthesis of the two trends mentioned earlier, where they were recognised as a possible controversy: Here are united the 'knowledge, insights and skills' as cognitive aspects with the attitudinal capacities 'critical and creative'.
It also shows the indication of a domain: *actual*, or *topical*- social and political phenomena; real every day events that means. From this wide range a need for delimitation rises. That is what the following pages of the first part offer, they concentrate in twenty pages elaboration of the core curriculum. This core curriculum covers the scope of the subject without succumbing to an overweight of information. It shows how a reasoned choice of -topical- subjects within the themes may cover the field and ascertain the final objectives. For this purpose four themes are worked out, namely those of

- Mass media
- Labour and employment
- Politics
- Rules, justice and criminality

In such a theme the coherence is shown between content, aims and objectives to be finally achieved. The latter are reffered to by a typically Dutch coinage:'eindterm' which would -with an excuse to classicists- best translate as "final term", when term is taken to mean 'description' (of a particular skill or bit of knowledge).These 'eind-term'- formulations describe in as precise a way as possible the educational content that may be brought to light by any way of evaluation. Such evaluation may be the usual pupil-qualifying, or a research into the quality and scope of educational offering.

5.2 Thematic organisation

The description of objectives thus understood are given in an enumeration for each theme, preceded by an introductory paragraph stating the basic questions underlying its content. These questions are partly related with the theme itself and partly belong to the thematic area in which the theme is thought to be embedded. In the case of mass-media the thematic area is taken to be that of education. Consequently the description begins with a number of questions to characterise this area, followed by a similar set of questions concerning mass media. After that a short summing up is given of the subject-matter to be taught. Finally the "final terms" are given, brought together under sub-headings corresponding to the summing up. To illustrate this particular way of describing a core curriculum the reader will find some examples taken from the theme of 'mass media' translated in the next pages. They are passages from the introductory paragraph and a sample of the objectives called 'final terms':

The theme of mass media belongs to the thematic area of 'Education'.

The most important media are newspapers, radio and television. The final terms for this core curriculum social and political studies for the pupils of l.b.o. and mavo are restricted to these media. In the thematic area 'Education' a number of questions concerning the organisation of society are central ones:
- *what values, norms, beliefs and conceptions (visions) are handed down through society to its new members in order to guarantee the continuation of that society (socialisation)?*
- *how does this process work, what social institutions are involved in it?*
- *What are the individual's options in this process of socialisation, as regards personal choices of values, norms etc. (individuation)?*

(.....)

An insight in the way mass media contribute may afford pupils an understandig of its socialising effect. This promotes the capacity of making individual choices of values and norms . An insight in the way how information supply comes about will further an individual way of reaching a reasoned opinion.

Questions concerning this theme

1. *What is communication and how do communication processes go?*
2. *What kind of mass media exist and how are they organised.*
3. *What is the importance of mass media for (the continuation of) a society? What values and norms are transferred/offered?*
4. *In what way is the goverment involved in mass media?*
5. *What interests play a role in organisation and functioning of the media.*

After these basic questions follows an indication of how the subject matter is divided into categories.
For the subject on hand there are five:

a. (mass) communication
b. mass media in general

c. political and juridical aspects
d. social-economic aspects
e. social-cultural aspects

The final terms are grouped under these headings and describe to a certain detail the curricular content. They are consistently described in three vertical columns. The first column has the short statements of these final terms. The second offers some explanatory characteristics. The third exemplifies the terms in key words.
It will be clear that these kind of formal descriptions, once they are accepted, are a pretty dependable instrument for various purposes. They enable school authorities to direct and to evaluate their educational offering.
They also provide frameworks for coursedesigners, groups of authors and educational publishers.

Final terms	Explanation	Concepts
1.1 Pupils can describe the concept of communication	Pupils do not have to give a definition but a circumlocution containing at least the terms sender, receiver and message (reproduction)	Communication, sender, receiver, message
1.2 They can explain what mass media are	Mass communication is communication directed to the public. Mass media are the means used in this communication (reproduction)	Mass communication Mass media
1.3 Pupils can describe the concept of information	Pupils must be able to indicate that information is meant to provide an insight in the world around, both in facts and in opinions (reproduction)	Information opinions (views)
1.4 Pupils can explain and recognise why information are of importance to man and	Pupils can indicate that information is important: - To be able to make choices in a cociety - To hand down values and norms (reproduction) they can recognise this in examples put before them (identification)	Importance, values, norms
2. Pupils can distinguish multi-lateral and unilateral communication from each other and recognise them	They can in their own words explain the differences between these two forms (reproduction) and describe them as essential elements in mass media (identification)	Multilateral and unilateral communication
	B. Mass media in general The final terms in this category are formulated around the following questions: - what sorts of mass media are there? - what tasks do the mass media fulfill? - on what basis do mass media make selections of what they want to offer or can offer?	

1. Pupils can give three examples of mass media	Radio, t.v. and newspapers (reproduction)	
2.1 Pupils can mention a minimum of three functions of media and they can recognise them	Functions are: information, opinions,amusement, advertising, education (reproduction). Pupils can recognise these separately or in mixed forms in a given radio- or t.v. -fragment or in programme guides (identification)	
2.2 Pupils can recognise these functions in newspaper columns and in radio and t.v.	Here are for example concerned: - information under the headings home, abroad, economics, etc. - opinions in columns, letters to the editor, editorials - amusement in comic strips - advertisement	
3.		

The status of these pretty precise descriptions of core-curricular content is very typical of the Dutch situation. In the light of our constitutional freedom of education they cannot but be as many bits of advice proffered by the S.L.O. They are just slightly too precise for any Dutch Minister of Education to impose them, on the same constituational grounds. And yet the final terms are in a stage of being gradually introduced.
In the subtle structure of balance and counterbalance, which our educational system is, it is the Central Board for Final Examinations that can shape educational content where the administration must stand back. There exist on the basis of mutual recognition very good connections between the subjectspecialists of social and political education in the S.L.O. and this Central Board. Like there are equally good connections with scientists in the field, working in several of our universities; and with the teachers' association. In these contacts the consensus has grown which may be seen as one of the sources from which the curricular concepts have, at least partly, come into existence. Consequently the sets of 'final terms', objectives, are becoming a kind of guideline, functioning to safeguard coherence. In fact the core curriculum is now in a period of try out, because the final exams in this subject have still an experimental character. These exams have been introduced partly at the insistence of the project group and will, as an experiment, be carried on into 1991.
A possible continuation after 1991 will depend on political decisions regarding the first phase of secondary education.

5.3 Other publications

Although the manual may be said to contain the achievement of the project aims in that it provides a near to complete description of general principles, of content and of implementation procedures in the individual school, this is by no means its only product.
In fact there is a list of nearly sixty publications of all kinds and levels ranging from contributions in educational periodicals to complete series of exemplary lessons. Some of these latter deserve being mentioned apart. They illustrate even better than the other three chapters of the manual how the 'final terms' of its first chapter work out in practice.

5.4 Models for lesson-series

Out of the many experimental thematic units, used in the developing period described in chapter 4 of this essay, a selection has been made to serve schools that have not participated in the experiment. They are contained in three portfolios , each containing three series of lessons that are completely described. Together they offer approximately sixhundred pages of information in addition to the manual. A precise division into thematic content renders them directly applicable both as teaching materials and as examples for the teacher to organise materials of his own choice.

As an example may be taken the third series of lessons from the first volume, having mass-media for its subject. It cannot be described completely in full detail in this essay. consequently some of it will be highlighted to give an impression of its character.

The lesson-series are divided in four chapters in the following way: in three comparatively short chapters the theme, its content and the justification of it in teaching-objectives are explained. The third chapter concentrates mainly on the thematic content of the lessons as a kind of advance organiser for the teacher. Once familiar with the outlines the user finds a lessonplan in chapter 4:
Its table of contents shows nine lessons:

4. A lesson plan as example

4.1 Global survey
4.2 The unsuccessful discussion
4.3 Sources of information
4.4 News for sale
4.5 From occurrence to newspaper
4.6 The production of a newspaper
4.7 A social problem reaches the pages
4.8 The clothesline
4.9 Comparing Dutch papers
4.10 The function of mass media
4.11 A test

It is clear that of the mass media one example is taken: 'Newspapers'.
The central question taken as a starting point is: "Where do we collect our information and what do we have to pay attention to in doing so?"

It is split up in four underlying questions:

1. What sources of information do we have?
2. How do newspapers select their information?
3. How do newspapers colour their information?
4. What do you, yourself do with mass media?

The lesson-series aims at pupils'activities. They will go in search for information, built up around the question how societal problems in their direct surroundings are reflected. The global survey in paragraph 4.1 gives short characteristics of the nine lessons described in the following paragraphs:

Lesson 1. The unsuccessful discussion
The class discusses an actual problem without any preparation. By means of observations which they are requested to make, it appears that a clear opinion can only be arrived at on the basis of information.

Lesson 2. Sources of information
To arrive at a well balanced opinion on questions concerning society one needs information. Personal experience is too little to rely on. Other people's experiences are needed to complete one's mental picture. What mass media do we use? (a questionnaire) How do we use the mass media and how do others do that?

Lesson 3. News for sale.
A film about the way how the media purchase their news every day.

Lesson 4. From occurrence to newspaper report.
The pupils make a survey, based on a scheme, to show the process of how an occurrence becomes news in a paper.

Lesson 5. A social problem reaches the pages.
A film on signalling-functions fulfilled by the newspaper in society and on the influence a paper can have in the solution of social problems.

Lesson 6. The clothesline
Of a number of newspapers the frontpages are compared. They are hung on a 'clothesline' across the classroom, in order of their relative sensationalism.

Lesson 7. Dutch papers compared.
The pupils compare a number of papers with the help of a questionnaire to ascertain differences of political colour, religion etc.

Lesson 8. The function of mass media
A programme-survey describing a day's t.v. and radio, the infomative, educative and amusement functions of mass media are shown. The pupils judge their own ways of using mass media.

Lesson 9. This lesson is devoted to tests evaluating the result of the proceding series of lessons.

This short survey gives only a superficial impression of the construction of one series out of nine. There are in the vast collection of materials produced even more than those enlisted in the final collection, which is contained in three portfolios.
The need is this enormous amount os materials and instructions with them is found is the particular position of teachers. They were although formally qualified, not prepared or even equipped for the new task of social and political education.
The reader may be referred to chapter 2 and 3 for an understanting of how this situation had come to exist. First the schools-organisation was altered, second several teachning-tasks were added that had not existed before. Particularly in the area of lower secondary and lower vocational schools.

5.5 Video-instruction

To give less experienced teachers an idea of how to work with a lesson-series a video-film has been made. There are actually two. One on how to plan a series of lessons under the title:"Take, for instance, unemployment". The other, called 'Outward bound - work together, learn together' shows the preparation of a project week and how it works in practice. It shows how a class of pupils carry out tasks in which they have to overcome natural obstacles in their course. They are brought in a situation of mutual dependence to experience the need of cooperation.

6. Expenditure and results

The project of Social and Political Education is now finished. Its activities were formaly ended on 1 january 1988. The subject specialists who used to work in the developing process will, of course, keep in touch with the other participants. There even remain a few tasks to be carried out. One of these is the drawing up of a final report. In it the results will be enumerated, principally to give account of the time and energy spent. It will also evaluate retrospectively some operational approaches.
Among the other remaining tasks are small contributions, mostly in terms of advice. They comprise consultations with a board of inspectors and other experts preparing national final exams. Advisory contacts with researchers in a university department of education are maintained. Co-editing a series of textbooks is going on and the project staff are still available for informative meetings with teachers.

6.1 The products

A considerable list of publications shows the 'products' that have been written. They are the most tangible results of the work done. Some are discussed in the preceding chapter, to explain their character. They are typical of the most important publications produced: the curriculum, documents describing content and teaching-aims, or exemplifying them. In their final report the authors list their publications under four headings:
1. Exemplary themes for social and political education;
2. Auxiliary publications;
3. General;
4. Project bulletins.

6.1.1 Exemplary themes
The exemplary themes have all been designed to be tried out in the classroom: Some of them had several reprints, especially the ones that were considered good enough to be spread on a wider scale:

- Voorbeelden van introductielessen maatschappijleer (1983), (1984), 1986
  Examples of introductory lessons in social and political studies.

- Voorbeeld voor het maatschappijleerthema Verschillende visies, één besluit. (1984), 1986
  Example for the theme 'Difficult visions, one decision'. An introduction into decision making, where opinions may differ in a political context.

- Voorbeeld voor het maatschappijleerthema Massamedia (1981), (1984), 1986
  Example for the theme 'Mass media'.

- Voorbeeld voor het maatschappijleerthema Verslaving, (1983), 1986
  Example for the theme 'Addiction'.

- Voorbeeld voor het maatschappijleerthema Gemeentepolitiek, (1983), 1986.
  Example for the theme 'Municipal politics'.

- Consumeren, "daar kan je niet van buiten", 1985
  Consumption, "You can't do without it".

- Strafrecht en Criminaliteit, 1986
  Criminal Law and delinquency.

- Kiezen voor gezin is kiezen voor.....?, 1981
  Choosing family life is a decision for what.....?

- Voorbeeld voor het maatschappijleerthema Relaties en relatievormen, 1986
  Example for the theme 'Relations and relationships.

- Voorbeeld voor het maatschappijleerthema Werk, (1984), 1986
  Example for the theme Work and employment.

- Afrika, Zambia bijvoorbeeld, 1985
  Africa, Zambia for instance. Introducing the issue of development work in the "third world".

- Calabria Mia, weggaan of blijven, (1982), 1985.
  Calabria Mia, leave or stay. An example of life in a development area in Europe.

- Maatschappelijke betekenis van de informatietechnologie, 1986
  Societal importance of informationtechnology.

- Computers en privacy, 1987
  Computers and privacy.

6.1.2 Auxiliary publications

The auxiliary publications, produced in the course of the six years of developing work served various purposes of support during that period. They went into problems of organisation as well as into those of practical teaching and of finding sources and materials. A lot of detail is found in them to compensate the lack of expience existing in most of the teaching staffs, unfamiliar with the subject of social and political studies as they were.
Some of the titles require something more than a mere translation to explain their content. In the following list it is tried to explain them by means of short characteristics:

- Visie op Maatschappijleer, (1981), 1983
  'A view of social and political studies'.
  A document proposing a body of opinions on the content, the pedagogical functions and didactic aims of the subject, as a basis for discussion with educational policy-makers. It raises

questions of social relevance and compatibility with different confessional points of view.

- Visie op mens, maatschappij en onderwijs, 1984
  A view of man, society and education.
  This document serves the same purpose as 'A view of societal and political studies'.

- Visie op onderwijzen en leren, 1984
  A view of teaching and learning.
  Although this publication is also meant to contribute to the discussion mentioned, it concentrates a bit more on questions of didactics related to pedagogical principles.

- Rapport inzake de legitimering van "Visie op maatschappijleer", 1983.
  Report on the legitimation of "A view of social and political studies".
  In this report, put before the Governing Board of the SLO and other authorities, an account is given of the way in which the project workers have sought approval of their ideas formulated in their vision document.

The functions of the documents mentioned here are to be understood in the context of chapter 3.2, 'Considerations', of this essay. The following publications,also listed under the term auxiliary are of a different nature. They are intended to support decisions to be made in the planning of educational activity. So they are directed at teaching staffs and school-principals.

- De structuur van een vakwerkplan maatschappijleer, 1983
  The structure of a plan for the teaching of social and political studies.
  It provides suggestions for planning the subject in the curriculum of a school. Consequently it is directed towards the teaching staff.

- De SLO en de leerplanontwikkeling maatschappijleer, 1983
  The SLO and (its views of) developing a curriculum for social and political studies.
  A kind of programme, describing points of departure in the process of planning social and political education. It formulates and explains content, objectives, and teaching procedures in their context.

- Inscholingscursus voor docenten maatschappijleer, 1983
  Introducing course for teachers of social and political studies.
  A publication in support of the materials developed for classroom-teaching, used in conferences and work-shoplike activities with teachers. Designed for in service training especially for the teachers (cf 3.1, 'The teachers').

- Maatschappijleer en eindtermen, 1982
  Social and political education and final objectives (final terms).
  For the meaning of 'final terms' we refer to 5.1 'The manual'.
  In this publication a contribution is given to discussions of a very wide scope, concentrating on the function of 'final terms' in general and on their formulation for this particular subject.

- Een beschouwing over sociale en politieke vorming, 1984
  A treatise on social and political education.
  This is a first study concerning the core curriculum, mainly directed at the comparatively small group of policy makers. Together with the next it may be seen as a preparation for the final documents in the Handbook described in Ch. V.

- Sociale en politieke vorming, 1984
  Social and political education.

- Maatschappijleer als sociale en politieke educatie, 1984
  Knowledge of society as social and political education.
  A contribution to a loose-leaf lexicon, describing the identity of the comparatively new school-subject.

Of a more practical nature, designed to be applied in the organisation of actual teaching are the following:

- Aanwijzingen voor het ontwikkelen van een lessenplan maatschappijleer, 1983.
  Instructions for developing and planning a series of lessons in social and political education.
  A booklet directed at teachers, it has proved to be useful in initial training of teachers as well. It contains a course in curriculum development.

- De kern van maatschappijleer. Een kernprogramma maatschappijleer voor MAVO/LBO, 1987.
  The main content of social and political studies. A core curriculum of social and political studies for lower general and vocational schools.
  In this study the project group preludes on the later curriculum model published in the Handbook. It was put before teachers and policymakers to elicit comment.

- Outward Bound: Samen werken - samen leren. Over de planning van een werkweek.
  The translation of this title requires a lexical digression: 'Samen werken' translates literally as work together. With a shift of intonation the same visual configuration of words suggests co-operation. The authors, by their choice of words subtly refer to a two-sided pedagogical aim: Learn to work in a common context and also learn to co-operate in mutual dependence. Its aim is principally that of 'outward-bound'experience. The booklet provides all necessary information into much practical detail, for teachers who want to prepare a projectweek.
  Its title translates as follows: "Outward Bound, Work together, learn together. How to plan a project week".

- Werkvormen voor de maatschappijleerles, 1987
  Ways to work in the social education lesson. Practical suggestions for teachers.

- Bronnenboek maatschappijleer MAVO/LBO, 1987.
  Sources and information for social/political education in lower general and vocational schools.
  A teachers' guide to sources of information, libraries, addresses of political parties, agencies, etc.

Many of these publications served a purpose in the project and at the same time provided materials to be used in final curriculum publications. Their compilation is found in the handbook, already treated in the previous chapter. Its full title:

- De planning van maatschappijleer, Handboek voor de bepaling van inhoud en vorm van een vakwerkplan, 1987.
  The planning of social and political education. A Handbook to help determine content and form of a school curriculum for the subject.

Audio-visual aids developed for use in classes with the materials listed above consist in eight sound-slide series and two video programmes.

Slide-series:
- Het eiland (introductielessen)
  The island (introductory lessons)

- Multi-interpretabele dia's (selectieve waarneming)
  Images capable of various interpretations (selective perception)
  The idea behind this series is to make pupils understand how easily a situation may be subjectively interpreted, influenced by prejudice.

- Calabria Mia.
  Calabria Mia is illustrative to the theme unit of this name.

- Het gezin vroeger en nu (relaties)
  The family formerly and to-day (relationships)

- Flip de indiaan (macht over produktiemiddelen)
  Philip the Indian (control of means of production)

- Vliethaege (vrije of geleide economie)
  Vliethaege (free or controlled economy)

- Karel de waterboer (macht over grondstoffen)
  Charly the waterman (control of natural resources)

- Siep de schaapscheerder (werkloosheid)
  Sibrand the shearer (unemployment)

The two video programmes, one on unemployment and one entitled Outward Bound are both designed as illustrative support for the instruction of teachers. They are dealt with in the previous chapter.

6.2 The effects

The project can hardly be justified by a mere reference to all the publications produced. Consequently some attention must be paid to the purposes they were supposed to serve and the degree to which they proved to be useful.
These purposes are clearly different in two ways. First, as the list of publications will have made clear, they differ in accordance with the different audiences approached. Second they differ functionally: Some were meant to support the process of development inside the project and a few were after several try outs considered good enough

to be used on a wider scale. The project's ultimate aim was formulating teaching aims and arranging them in some order to fit a number of curriculum plans (-models). These latter were quite clearly meant to function beyond the scope of experimental educational settings.
Of the publications designed for general use it is of utmost importance to be informed of the way they are applied in the field of education. Do they actually contribute to a better structured planning? Are they capable of inspiring school-leaders in their approaches of school-curriculums? Can teachers work along the lines and with the recommendations formulated in the handbook? Most of the questions of this kind are at the moment difficult to answer. It is a matter of time, however, like it has been a matter of time to develop both curriculum and course materials. The information needed to make the evaluations required by our questions is not easily obtained. A research, already referred to, and to be dealt with in the following pages, is prepared. Yet, it can be ventured to run ahead of the answers to be expected. Mainly by estimating to what degree the projectgroup has been able to influence educational policy. Of the internal publications, issued sometimes in no more than fifty copies, it is easily recognised how they contributed to the processes in the experiment. They either functioned as a basis for discussion internally or emerged as results of such exchanges of opinions. Their relative importance is found in the way they resound in final external publications.

It is especially the four titles listed at the top of our 'auxiliary publications' that deserve some attention. Their functioning has been explained in Chapter 3.2, their result may be summed up in one word: consensus.
As the reader may have learnt from the beginning chapters of this essay, social and political education was a subject developing into a battle ground of controversy. Too much had been left unspecified, too much uncertainty as to its aims and methods reigned in the schools.
Consensus was found in the acceptance of an idea launched by the SLO: The content of social and political education was to be defined as elements (teaching units) belonging to one or more of 6 sets (thematic fields). Simple though this may seem it had a very important meaning because it not only defined a content. It also included a didactic approach. This ordening in sets has been accepted , not only by subject specialists and educationalists in university institutes but also by the board of inspectors preparing final exams. And this means that a national core curriculum is principally decided without its having been imposed in any way.
So now the identity of the subject is expressed in six thematic specifications:
1. Education;
2. Home, house and environment;
3. Work and leisure;
4. Technology and society;
5. State and society;
6. International relations.

In chapter 4 of this essay is shown how the thematic areas in the project were developed into a model curriculum. This model has been published in the Handbook together with abundant information on its application to teaching practice. Of the acual use made of it very little is known at present. An evaluative research, carried out by

the Department of Education in the University of Twente, will eventually throw some more light on this question. In fact the question is two-fold:
- Do teachers of social and political education apply materials provided by the SLO?
- When using SLO-materials, do teachers apply them in accordance with the didactical conceptions underlying them or do they follow their own?

It would seem that these questions, together with that of the spread of ideas and suggestions, will have to be considered in connection with the availability of SLO- materials for the subject. As was related, the SLO does not enter the market of educational publishers. Consequently its ideas can only find acceptance in proportion to its editions. Limited though they may be the editions of model curriculums are large enough to reach all prospective readers, policy-making officials mostly.
Teachers will naturally be more interested in publications that can be applied immediately in the classrooms. However, the experimental course materials were printed on the small scale needed for schools joining the initial experiments.
At present there is a complete course in preparation, prepared on the basis of the exemplary themes listed above. The publisher preparing it relies to a large extent on advice by the developers, our project-specialists. In the autumn of this year, 1988, this course of political and social education will be ready. It will then be accompanied by introductory meetings, mainly in teachers' conferences. Consequently it will not be before august 1989 that teachers can start their new classes with these new materials. So not until two years after that date, about september 1991, it will be possible to estimate the impact of the new approach on a somewhat wider scale. Until then an optimal use of the relations network built up in the course of the last six years of developing activities will be our main instrument of implementation.

This network of relations implies good working-contacts with a number of institutions, such as:
- Cito, the national institution for tests, examinations and other educational assessment.
- Niam, the Dutch institution for audio-visual means.
- Cevno, Centre for European Education in the Netherlands.
- Teacher training colleges taken together under the name of NLO, which means 'New Colleges for future Teachers'. They were started in the mid-seventies.
- University institutions of social sciences.

This network of relations and communications may in itself be considered another valuable result of the work done by the project staff. Without it the specification of the content of the new educational subject would hardly have been possible. Yet, the results achieved up to to-day are still rather more of a theoretical nature than of a practical one. This is also noticed in the evaluative remarks the projectgroup formulates in its final report.

6.3 The project-strategy reviewed

In retrospective analysis the projectgroup have tried a summary evaluation of their policy. Their findings are summed up in what

follows.
A strategy was chosen to develop and evaluate course-materials, to apply these in three successively wider areas and gather information in this way to work out curriculum descriptions. The initial stage of each new item -thematic unit- was a short period of try out of a newly designed series of lessons. This was referred to as 'lightning action'. (See ch. 4 of this essay). Developing the complete series of experimental teaching materials in this way took about two years. The projectgroup reviewed this way of working as very efficient. Particularly because it was done in cooperation with a small dedicated group of teachers working in two schools.
Testing the applicability of these units in the next wider circle proved to be of equal value. This was a comparatively economical way to collect sufficient information for the final improvements necessary to allow a wider introduction.
In the third circle as it was called, comprising 36 schools a nation wide introduction was more or less simulated. This was a phase in which things grew out of hand. It proved near to impossible to maintain communications in support of the ideas developed. There were two factors making this task difficult:
First the projectgroup had to cope with an amount of reserve on the part of teachers, who were not sufficiently informed of the project activities and its basic philosophy. As it is formulated in its review the group would advise some more attention to 'public relations work' in similar developing projects.

Second was the problem of increasing side-line activities imposed on some of the group-members, resulting from changes in the internal policy of the SLO. Obviously the intensive work to be done on a wide ranging project requires an undivided attention of a comparatively small and energetic group of specialists.
Another problem reflects in the difficulties met when it was tried to collect evaluative information by means of questionnaires:
Teachers even the enthousiastic participants who joined in the beginning of the project, appear to become tired of being involved in educational research. Particularly when it brings with it too much paperwork.
Consequently the response to this questionnaire was too meagre to justify evaluations on the basis of it.
As has been reported, the University of Twente will carry out an evaluative research. A general conclusion may be that the project has achieved all its initial aims in that it provided proper solutions to the problems existing in the beginning. We now have a good curriculum-model, practicable suggestions for school leaders to arrange their educational offering. We also have examples and guidelines needed for an educational publisher to work with in designing course materials. Of utmost importance also is the way in which the energies and actions of subject specialists outside the SLO were coordinated.

6.4 Expenditure

The cost of this operation carried out in a six year project amounted to approximately Dfl. 500.000,- yearly, mostly spent on the salaries of project staff and allowances for the time spent by participating teachers. The overhead consisted in production cost of teaching materials and other publications, travelling, meetings, a number of two-or three-day conferences and some small expense.

This amount of Dfl 500.000,- is not really very much, compared to the cost of social and political education in the schools. A reasoned guess, based on the assumption that all Dutch pupils between ages 13 and 16 have one weekly lesson in the subject, results in an amount of seventy five million guilders. So, for six years less than 1 per cent of the means needed to teach it was spent on defining and organising the content. It may still seem to be costly, however, it should be borne in mind that the price of good education and of developing the conditions for it is not really high. Only theoretically would it be possible to try and give an answer to the question whether the price of education is higher than the cost of ignorance. Even with a subject designed to contribute to such immaterial, hard to calculate aims as instigating good citizenship in a modern democracy. Historically we only know some of the cost of restoring democratic freedom once it is lost.

Reeds verschenen:

1. E. Marshall: Onderzoek inzake het voorlichtingsblad Leerplanzaken

2. Drs. A. Bruggink: Beroeps- en opleidingsprofiel winkelchef grootwinkelbedrijf

3. A. Lahuis: De taxonomie van De Block: Een proeve van toepassing voor het leerstofgebied omgangskunde

4. A. Nijhof: Pilot studie naar doelstellingen voor informatica

5. B. Sterringa: Sleuteltermen met betrekking tot de problematiek man/vrouw-rolverdeling en het onderwijs

6. G.J. van den Brink: Vakkenintegratie: een overzicht van stromingen en voorbeelden

7. A. Kingmans: Het samenwerkingsverband engels in het basisonderwijs

8. A. Lahuis: Een kernleerplan: rechtvaardiging van een voorstel

9. A. Lahuis: De beschrijving van onderwijsdoelstellingen in schoolwerkplanpublikaties - over affectieve en andere doelstellingen

10. A. Lahuis: Beroepsprofielen en beroepsopleidingsprofielen in verband met leerplanontwikkeling door de SLO

11. J.G. Meijering: Gebruik van SLO-adviezen

12. L. Bonekamp en A. ten Brummelhuis: Evaluatie van: Gericht schrijven voor mavo en lbo

13. A. Kingmans: Engels in het basisonderwijs

14. G.E.A. Bol: Roldoorbrekend onderwijs

15. L.W.F. Bonekamp, B.G. Doornekamp en J.N. Streumer: Motorische vaardigheden in het onderwijs

16. J. Plevier en G. Rijlaarsdam: Rimpelingen

17A. A. Kosijungan: Praktische criterialijst roldoorbrekend onderwijs

17B. A. Kosijungan: Toepassing van de criterialijst roldoorbrekend onderwijs op een SLO-produkt

18. F. Looy: De implementatie van natuuronderwijs halverwege

19. Joke Buursma: Onderzoek naar effectiviteit van scholen

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